

The Southern Speech Journal

VOLUME VIII

JANUARY, 1943

NUMBER 3

SPEECH FOR WAR AND FOR PEACE

LEROY LEWIS
Duke University

As I sit here in my study in December 1942, thinking of a message to be read by the members of the Southern Association of Teachers of Speech in late January 1943, I find myself constantly coming back to the simple speech theme: speech training for war and speech training for peace must both be engaged in NOW!

During the last three months as I have worked closely with sectional chairmen in the building of the 1943 program. I have wondered many times about the advisability of a program at all. One letter came to me from a member of our Association insisting that all the evidence pointed toward a cancellation of the convention. For this point of view, I have a sincere respect. But I am even more impressed with another point of view. I am somewhat familiar with some of the army and navy educational programs in the training of officers. In these programs, I am struck with the emphasis on developing force and leadership in these young men. Speech training is being emphasized in these training programs. How else, I ask, can young men in service be trained more effectively for force and leadership than through training in speech. It has taken the war to throw the spotlight on deficiencies in speech training. As evidence, here is what the Adjutant General of the War Department said in an open letter to the President of the Pennsylvania Military College:

"A great number of men have failed at camp because of inability to articulate clearly. A man who cannot impart his idea to his command in clear distinct language, and with sufficient volume of voice to be heard reasonably far, is not qualified to give commands upon which human life depend. Many men disqualified by this handicap might have become officers under their country's flag had they been properly trained in school and college."

A year ago last May, Lt. E. G. Overton of the United States Army, speaking to our Duke Chapter of Tau Kappa Alpha, said, "Public Speaking is as important in the United States Army as it is in the classroom or the civic club. A man who can speak in the United States Army is in great demand." In the November issue of the *Kiwanis Magazine*, I saw an advertisement entitled, "Speech Defects Handicap Soldiers." It read as follows: "Thirty thousand rejected in the draft because of stammering, loss of voice, and other speech defects. Almost everyone of these can be corrected in two months, if treated scientifically—but the Government has no department for this work, hence the men are rejected or refused commission." This evi-

dence and much more which is available convinces me that we teachers of speech who live and work in the South surrounded by army camps, need to meet in Jackson in March for a thorough discussion of speech in wartime.

A second factor that should strike every teacher of speech between the eyes is the need for leadership through self-expression that will come when the fighting is over. The art of self-expression, the role of discussion, the sharing of views, will all abound at the peace conference table following the war. And when the conferees have arrived at a program of peace, each will return to his country to utilize the techniques of debate, persuasion and speech psychology to get the support of his legislative bodies and his people behind such a program. Any union of the United Nations following the war will require a utilization of speech techniques to make it successful. I do not have in mind here that every student trained by us will be around the peace conference table or in congress. Rather, I have in mind that our students, every single one of them, will be a citizen and neighbor in a community, and through neighborhood conversation and community leadership he will encourage small but potent democratic groups to support a strong program of world peace to the end that we shall not for a second time in one generation allow minority groups to sabotage the efforts of our country to exert an effective international leadership.

I believe, therefore, that the teacher of speech must play just as great a role in the building of leadership for war now as he will play in the building of leadership for peace later. At this moment, I do not know what colleges and universities will be selected by government contract by the army and navy nor do I know what the army and navy curriculum will be. May I, however, venture the hunch that when the curriculum is announced, it will contain a requirement for the training of men in *adequate oral expression*. By "adequate" I mean that it will encourage self-expression, democratic discussion and debate, rehabilitation, voice development, drama for morale, and else in our field that makes for the fullest development of the individual. If this be true, then we must meet in Jackson, Mississippi in March and render our professional contribution to speech for war and speech for peace.

And now, may I say a word about the convention program. Fifteen sectional chairmen have been at work for several months building programs especially designed for all groups from the elementary schools through the secondary schools and colleges. There will be a speech tournament and congress not only for college students but for high school students as well. The latter is an innovation for 1943. There will be important speakers from outside our Association, some of whom are active in the leadership of the N. A. T. S. There will be speakers from a wartime bureau in Washington, a national broadcasting chain, a Little Theatre group in a large southern city, a large eastern drama department, and from the Mississippi State Government. I would emphasize the point that every single division of the speech field

(Continued on page 91)

THE 1943 S.A.T.S. SPEECH TOURNAMENT AND CONGRESS FOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

ROBERT B. CAPEL, *Hendrix College, Director*

SOMETHING NEW

The S. A. T. S. Speech Tournament and Congress for college students is not new. It has proven popular and profitable to many during the years past. Last spring it was decided to adopt a similar program for High School students in the 1943 meeting. The information given below applies therefore to both High School and College participation.

TIME AND PLACE

Plans are well under way for the All-South Speech Tournament and Congress to be held in conjunction with the convention of the Southern Association of Teachers of Speech for 1943. The place is Jackson, Mississippi. The time is March 23 and 24 for the tournament, and March 25, 26 and 27 for the Congress. The Congress will be held concurrently with the convention but will not conflict with the convention since it will be managed by students with the exception of one faculty advisor.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

The proposition for the college debate divisions is: "Resolved, That the United Nations should establish a permanent federal union with power to tax and regulate international commerce, to maintain a police force, to settle international disputes and to enforce such settlements, and to provide for the admission of other nations which accept the principles of the union." The proposition for debate in the High School division will be the wording of the regular High School proposition in use February 1st. The topic for extemporaneous speaking will probably be "Foreign Relations of the United States." The final decision as to the extemporaneous speaking topic will be announced in the regulations to be sent out early in January.

REGULATIONS FOR DEBATE

The regulations for debate will vary but slightly from former meetings. There will be four divisions in debate: (1) High School—open to bona fide high school students in grades 9, 10, 11 and 12. These teams may be composed entirely of men, entirely of women, or of both men and women; (2) Men's debate—open to undergraduate men in senior colleges or universities; (3) Women's debate—open to undergraduate women in senior colleges or universities; (4) Junior division—open to junior colleges and/or senior colleges using freshmen or sophomores only. Teams in the junior division may be composed entirely of men, entirely of women, or of both men and women.

There will be six rounds of debate for all teams. One round in all three of the college divisions will be conducted according to the

Oregon Plan of debate. The other five rounds of the college tournament and all six rounds of the high school division will use the conventional style of debate with ten minute constructive speeches and five minute rebuttals for all speakers. All teams will debate both sides of the proposition. If possible, winners will be determined at the conclusion of the six rounds upon the basis of debates won and lost. No attempt will be made to break ties except for the purpose of awarding trophies. A ranking system will be used for this purpose. Time will be allowed following each debate for constructive criticisms by the judge, but the decision will not be announced until the conclusion of the six rounds.

ORATORY, EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING AND AFTER-DINNER SPEAKING REGULATIONS

No major changes have been made in the regulations for oratory, extemporaneous speaking, or after-dinner speaking. There will be separate contests for college men, college women, and high school students. The orator's subject shall be of his own choosing, must be strictly original and not have been used in any contest previous to the present school year, and the length shall be no less than eight nor more than ten minutes. In extemporaneous speaking contestants shall draw their specific topics one hour before speaking time, and the time limit shall be no less than five nor more than seven minutes. In after-dinner speaking the occasion shall suggest the topic and the speech shall not exceed five minutes.

DIRECTORS-STUDENT CONFERENCE

A director-student conference will be included on the program immediately following the last round of debate for the purpose of discussing methods of improving the S. A. T. S. Tournament. The matter of experimentation with new contests and other forms of debate and discussion will be discussed at this meeting. Any student or forensic director is encouraged to explain new projects in the forensic field.

THE FORENSIC BANQUET

A feature of this year's final forensic banquet will be the attendance of many S. A. T. S. faculty members, other than directors of forensics. An invitation is hereby extended to all S. A. T. S. members in attendance at the Convention to attend the forensic banquet on Wednesday evening, March 24. This banquet will be the only opportunity for the faculty and students to meet together as a part of the S. A. T. S. program. The finals in the after-dinner speaking will be held, and the awards will be presented.

STUDENT CONGRESS OF HUMAN RELATIONS

The student congress is under the direction of the Tau Kappa Alpha Fraternity and will be continued upon the same plan as used last year. The congress will be entirely under student management with the exception of one faculty advisor. Any member school may enter as many students as desired.

(Continued on page 76)

THE WAR SERVICE CONVENTION AT CHICAGO

C. M. WISE

Louisiana State University

The convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech at Chicago, December 28, 29, and 30, was held against the honest and opinion and earnest advice of a great many members of the Association. Needless to say, it was the opinion of a great many of the other members that the convention should be held, an opinion in which the majority of the Executive Council and other officers concurred. In view of having gone against considerable advice to the contrary, those who attended the convention felt a heavy burden of obligation to make the convention justify itself.

In retrospect it now can be said that the convention did justify itself. Despite all predictions to the contrary, there was an enrollment of 409. Considering that the maximum enrollment in a favorable year and in a central location has never exceeded a thousand and that the enrollment at conventions non-centrally located has sometimes been almost as low as three hundred, an attendance of 409 for this year may be considered almost phenomenally large. (Incidentally, travel conditions were not, as a rule, more difficult than at any normal holiday season.)

But more important than attendance, of course, were the programs themselves. Throughout all of these, it was never forgotten that we are a nation at war. In every possible way the discussions sought to discover the adaptability of the various forms of speech activity to the present struggle and its successful prosecution.

Most important of all were the war plans of the Association Council. A special War Committee was set up and invested with power and financial support to proceed immediately to such questions as the following:

1. What speech teaching can be carried on among regular students during war time?
2. What speech teaching can be adapted to the program of the R. O. T. C.?
3. What speech teaching can be made to serve as units of regular instruction in the army, both in camps and in colleges and universities where the army receives training?

By way of finding the answers to these questions, the Committee expects to gather opinion and information from every part of the country, and to keep in continuous communication with responsible authorities at Washington. The members of the committee are the following-named:

Chairman, Bower Aly, vice-president of the National Association, and recent appointee to the service of the Office of War Information; Robert West, University of Wisconsin, president of the National Association; W. Hayes Yeager, George Washington University; Franklin Knower, University of Iowa; W. N. Brigrance, Wabash College, editor of the *Quarterly Journal*; Lee Norvelle, Indiana University; Rupert L. Cortright, Secretary of National Association.

In addition a special Steering Committee was provided for, which

(Continued on page 87)

INTEGRATION IN SPEECH EDUCATION

FRANKLIN H. KNOWER

University of Minnesota

We are living in a fast moving educational world. Newly discovered facts from educational research and new philosophies of teaching call from every hand for a re-examination of old practices and methods. Conscientious teachers trying to keep abreast of their fields frequently are confused by the great variety of concepts competing for their consideration. Yet all of us are anxious to give our work that additional push which a new idea will sometimes give it. This is the setting and the motive for a brief discussion of the concept of "integration" as it applies to speech education.

I am interested in the concepts of integration because the frame of reference carried by this word lends a new touch of realism to our educational philosophy. And one thing we need above all in our educational thinking is a greater attempt to be realistic in the treatment of our problems. There are many ways in which the word may be used to designate more precisely than has been customary some vital ideas for our field. Yet the diversity of the meanings of this word as applied to our teaching is one of its greatest weaknesses. It is for this reason that I prefer to discuss the concept of integration in terms of levels or types, rather than as a single word.

There appear to be four ways in which the concept applies to our field. The first we shall designate as the personal level or type of integration. It is with this level that writers such as Murray¹ have been concerned. Murray writes, "Integration of the speaker is a requisite for satisfactory adjustment in speech situations." And again, "The well-developed speaker is an integrated speaker. All of his forces cooperate completely as a unit in making the adjustment. All phases of the speech act—voice, action, language, speech purposes, thinking and feeling, all the organs of speech (and this includes the entire person)—should work as one in a smooth and unimpeded way." We may concern ourselves largely with the integration of some one of the speech processes such as action, voice or language, and in some cases these processes need to be subjected to particular study. Many of our texts deal in part with the integration of gesture. Although it has been customary to think of work on these processes in terms of the development of skill, it is possible that a student may possess a reasonable degree of skill in the particular elements or processes and still not be a good speaker because his skills are not well integrated. Here we are faced with two alternatives. We may seek the development of integrated speech skills in terms of the processes themselves, or in terms of the speaker's personality. The processes approach is a direct approach in which we deal with the mechanics through drill or practice. The personality approach is an indirect approach which operates on the theory that the integrated way is the natural way, and that the problem is one of removing the interfering inhibitions in the personality of the speaker. If we recognize speech as a social phenomenon and conclude that we are concerned in our teaching with the total potential symbolic

¹ Elwood Murray, *The Speech Personality*, New York, 1937.

behavior of the individual, then the latter method has much to be said for it. It is certainly realistic to recognize that it is the whole individual, integrated or disintegrated, which determines the social force of his speech. When we use this method, we draw heavily upon the techniques developed in the field of personnel psychology. We are not in a position to say which of these two methods produces better results. Much may depend upon the problem and personality of the particular student.

The second level of integration may be referred to as a social level or type of integration. The fact that individuals who use speech processes well in some speech situations do not use these same processes well in certain social situations frequently has been the subject of comment. In the past our method of classroom attack on this problem has been through the procedure of teaching speech activities, but we have not always been wise in the selection of these activities. It has become apparent that we must teach many types of speech in a variety of social situations. We cannot expect well trained orators necessarily to be good conversationalists, or to carry on an effective interview. On the other hand, the greater the number of speech situations in which the individual uses speech effectively, the greater the probability that he will do well in other speech situations.² Although types of speech may appear on the surface to have much in common, they also have many elements that are different. By increasing the diversity of learning activities, we reduce the number of new elements to be faced in new situations. By increasing the number of social situations which students face in learning to speak, we increase their social sophistication. Thus the well developed speech program is one which provides for the social as well as the personal integration of our students.

The third type or integration in a program of speech education is an educational level of integration. Here we are concerned with the orientation of our educational program with all the educational forces acting upon the student. We may classify these educational forces as co-curricular, extra-curricular and curricular. Many schools carry on a co-curricular speech program made up largely of debating, dramatics, declamation and oratory. Although these activities may have their value for the few, they are usually too restricted in type to fit the needs for the speech training of the great majority of our students. Speech training has a much broader service to offer in the direction of aiding in the many club and activity programs of the school. In this way greater opportunities for the development of initiative and responsibility in the meeting of everyday speech problems may be provided than are present in the organized curriculum. This type of integration may be recommended as providing opportunity for the exercise of speech functions in leadership. Although important, and deserving of attention, these co-curricular activities should not be permitted so to dominate the program of speech education that the curricular program is crowded (as it is in many schools) out of the educational picture.

² Franklin H. Knower, "A Study of Speech Attitudes and Adjustments," *Speech Monographs*, 1938, V.

In the study of extra-curricular speech activities we are concerned with an extension of the principles of co-curricular activities to provide educational speech experience in community speech activities. The opportunities for such experiences in the average community are legion. They provide some of the most stimulating and valuable learning experiences which are available. To integrate the school program with this unorganized community speech activity not only will extend our opportunities for training, but will introduce an element of realism in the program which we cannot afford to overlook.

It is with the program of curricular integration, however, that we have our primary responsibilities. Here we may reach the greater number of students to whom we have most to offer. The other types of programs are open to us as we may exercise them. In curricular integration, the problem is one of the discovery and development of the opportunities in the school curriculum for drawing upon other course work to facilitate the objectives of the speech program, and for making a contribution to these courses and the educational program of the school. We are developing courses of study for speech in school systems organized on the subject matter basis where integration with English, the social sciences, and personnel direction may be carried out. In such school systems, moreover, the speech program may well be advocated as a primary method of integrating school work. For in speech it is necessary that the student not only know his subject, but also that he be able to make his knowledge functional in a social environment. This is a program long advocated by teachers of speech.¹

It is in the fourth level or type of integration that we find the most frequent use of this concept in modern education. We shall call it a cultural integration in which the whole curriculum is organized, not about school subjects, and in many cases not even carried on primarily in the school buildings, but around life problems sometimes called core curriculum problems, and carried on whenever valuable learning experiences are available. Most of us have long recognized that the study of speech for the immediate development of skills must be primarily an experience curriculum, but I wonder if we have been as realistic as it is possible to be in the integration of our work with significant life problems. We may easily become so concerned with such matters as a little awkwardness, the broad *a* or final *r* that the significant elements in speech dynamics are overlooked. Speech training has its contributions to make to the seven cardinal aims of education or any other core curricular organization, but I have not seen many speech courses so organized that its contribution to these core problems approaches its potentialities. Here then is another fertile field for the development of our concepts of integration. Whether or not educational reorganization continues to move in this direction, we have something to offer here which is vital. A realistic program of speech education must not continue to render lip service only to this ideal.

¹E. L. Hunt, "General Specialists," *Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking*, 1916, 2, 253-263.

HOW DID THEY GET THAT WAY?

H. P. CONSTANS
University of Florida

It is a common complaint that students entering college are not properly prepared to do work at the college level!

This complaint usually takes the form of criticism of the training received by the boy or girl in the public school. It is not uncommon also to criticize the collegiate training of the public school teacher. It is less common to place the responsibility for lack of proper preparation upon the student. I suspect that I, along with many others, have done my share of criticizing.

However, irrespective of whether or not the criticisms are merited, I do know that most entering Freshmen are poor speakers. I mean poor speakers in the ordinary sense of the word. They cannot get up on their feet, and stand before a group of students their own age and training, and keep their bodies, voices, and minds functioning in a normal manner. And yet, the majority of them are from average or better background, have some superiority of intellect and a good physique. As children, they responded to variable social situations with ease and adaptability. They entered naturally and even eagerly into conversation. They could hardly wait for the other child to finish talking because they wanted to tell of some exciting, interesting thing that had happened to them. Not only did they want to express their own ideas in conversation or group discussion but they were proud of an opportunity to speak in public.

But what a change has taken place in less than ten years! These same normal boys and girls who are now seated in our college classes are tense, nervous, confused, ill at ease, and in some cases actually terrified over the prospect of speaking before an audience. How did they get that way?

In most cases I believe the answer to the question can be found in the public school training or lack of it during and after adolescence. It is generally recognized that the adolescent is quick to take offense and almost certain to resent criticism. He hesitates to do anything before a group lest he be laughed at, ridiculed, and held up to scorn for some blunder he has made or something he has said. Naturally enough he reasons, and quite logically, that if he does nothing and says nothing, he will be safe—safe from the blows of that greatest of all budgeons, social pressure. And yet life almost demands that he be able to talk. He will live in a society where almost every member speaks hundreds and even thousands of words daily. Frequently, his actual living, his receiving a promotion, his settling of personal controversies, his controlling of the thinking and action of others is dependent, to a large extent, upon his ability to speak effectively. If education is supposed to be a preparation for life, or is life itself, then we are failing in our obligation to society and to the individual unless we train him to speak to a group, because speak he must and will, if not well, then poorly.

Unless the public school has an understanding of some of these

speech problems, which inevitably are bound up with the personality of the individual; unless it presents to him sound guiding principles which will give him confidence; unless he has a chance to practice speaking before a group—in other words, unless it gives him training in speaking—it is failing to equip him for the life he is to lead. In order that the student may learn to speak effectively it is essential that all teachers in the public school system have an understanding of the speech needs of the individual, that they have had a reasonable minimum of speech work in college and that some one or more teachers in each school have had considerable academic training in speech. Until this is done we cannot hope for an appreciable improvement in the student's speaking.

We have no way of measuring the loss to society and to the community arising from the fact that though the individuals who compose it have good ideas, helpful suggestions, and real contributions to make, they are afraid to voice them publicly; or, if they do, they do so in such an ineffective way that they may actually defeat their purpose. I feel sure that we would all agree that this is an appreciable loss. Therefore, isn't it safe to assume that if we gave the child in the public school a reasonable amount of training in speech; the individual, the community, and society would be better off. I submit to you that it is worth trying.

THE TOURNAMENT AND CONGRESS

(Continued from page 70)

ON TO JACKSON

This is intended as only a brief general discussion of the tournament and Congress. Complete regulations will be sent out after January 1, in the form of a booklet. Plan now to attend the tournament, congress and convention in Jackson, March 23-27, 1943.

DEBATE RULES—OREGON PLAN

1. Each team shall be composed of two members. The debate shall be conducted by a chairman.

2. The first affirmative speaker shall present the entire affirmative case in fifteen minutes. The first negative speaker shall then present the entire negative case in fifteen minutes.

3. The *second negative* speaker shall then question the *first affirmative* speaker on points and issues relating to the cases presented in constructive speeches. Questions and answers shall be as brief as is consistent with the point dealt with. The affirmative speaker shall give a direct answer to every question asked him, or else he shall *object* to the chairman that the question is irrelevant or unanswerable. If he shall object, the chairman shall thereupon either sustain or overrule the objection. If he shall overrule it the affirmative speaker must then answer the question. Ten minutes shall be allowed for this period of questioning, but it shall not necessarily be construed as a weakness if the negative questioner shall elect to use less than the allotted time.

4. The *second affirmative* speaker shall then question the *first negative* speaker on points and issues relating to the cases presented

(Continued on page 83)

DEBATE TRAINING AND CITIZENSHIP

DALLAS C. DICKEY

Louisiana State University

It is significant that one of the most recent books in public discussion and debate has as its sub-title, *Tools of Democracy*.¹ This book, like much of the literature in the realm of discussion and debate, seeks to apply the rules and principles of discussion and inquiry to topics and problems confronting a free people in their efforts at self-government. Teachers of debate, in writing and in practice, are to be commended for all they have done to safe-guard the democratic process. A safe assumption may be that, if we are ever compelled to surrender our freedom of expression because a dictator says we must, the hundreds and thousands of debaters of the present and past years will be some of the most difficult to silence.

The habits of analysis have sunk deep. The impulse to affirm and negate has been entrenched. The discipline associated with finding the rock bottom issues and excluding the superficial and irrelevant ones characterizes their daily thinking, reading, and talking. The zeal to inspect the other man's position, to determine its freedom from inherent weaknesses, and to allow none in his own is pronounced in the well trained debater. And, almost above all, the unconquerable desire, engendered by numerous opportunities which have been given him, to speak out, to declaim and to declare, is an attitude of debaters more certainly than of almost any other group in society.

Criticism, weaknesses, and even evils there are in debating, and we must recognize them. Yet over a half-century, the programs of formalized inter-school debating, high school and college, have helped to produce many of our thinking citizenry. It is difficult to believe otherwise than that successive students, through successive years, working upon and analyzing and debating successive subjects, have done something for the crystallization of national thought and reaction. Rightly conceived and rightly taught, debating and discussion are two of the most dynamic processes conceivable.

There may be nothing new in all this. Most debate directors and administrators might well reply that this has always been their motivation in devoting time, work, and money for the training of students. Yet it is entirely possible that many engaged in debating activity have never realized the full worthwhileness of the very responsibility which they have been delegated to direct. The mechanical process of schedule making and arranging for hotel accommodations on trips, and the expenditure of nervous energy in contesting the right of a given person to judge a crucial debate in a tournament or in pacing the floor until the results have been announced, have made too many lose the educational perspective. Avowedly our emphasis should be elsewhere. The impact of our influence must be felt in genuinely educational channels. Where in the educational scheme of things does the teacher of debaters wield his greatest influence? We cannot prove, probably, by statistical correlations the values of our teaching. We know, all too well,

¹Henry L. Ewbank and Jeffery Auer, *Public Discussion and Debate* (New York, 1941).

that untold influences operate on our students aside from those which we bring to bear. Yet the testimony of our former students as to what debating has contributed to their lives, the realization and knowledge of the roles which these people are playing in contemporary society, and the ever evident signs of development in the students we work with every year are some of the encouragements which are ours.

For a more specific inquiry as to the citizenship values of debate training, no more than two questions need be raised: First, do we think often in terms of that boy who, say ten years ago, found himself, at the age of thirteen or fourteen, so genuinely interested in a topic for debate that he read more widely and intensively than a college senior, and who, by the study of debate questions in high school and college, became an aroused student on almost every social, economic, and political problem in the years that followed?

Second, have we fully considered that we are just now beginning to see signs of our former debaters taking their places in strategic deliberative councils? One speech teacher takes much personal pride in the fact that five of his former debaters are now in a certain state legislature. These men have not forgotten their training in analysis, synthesis, evaluation of evidence, and refutation. Neither have they forgotten that they must speak to the point, and see the difference between the woods and the trees. Fortunate is the teacher of debate who can point to those people, political leaders, eminent lawyers, dynamic ministers, and influential citizenry, who are in a measure what they are because of him.

In the scholarly study of any great speaker, an early inquiry is always made into his speech training. We find ourselves ever ready to place in significant paragraphs whatever training our speaker may have had in disputations, forensics, and debating. The great speakers and leaders are not all dead. There is a tremendous interest now in contemporary public address. If the opportunities at Bowdoin for S. S. Prentiss, at Harvard for Edward Everett, at Princeton for Woodrow Wilson, and at DePauw for Albert J. Beveridge were good in the ultimate making of these men, it is only natural that the training we offer today will bear fruit in others.

Citizenship is not a tangible thing to be measured scientifically. Moreover, no one educational discipline has the right to assume that its citizenship values are much greater than those of other studies. Anything that contributes to the upbuilding of the individual and to the adjustment of man to society and its problems, and anything that causes him to be eager to participate thoughtfully in human affairs can find shelter under the educational mantle. Yet many of us feel sincerely that we are teaching and directing an activity which combines the thought and speech of the student most beneficially. Aside from giving the student training in public speaking under the most challenging of circumstances, debate training does place much emphasis upon certain things vitally important to the development of a citizen. Doubtless the most important of these is training in straight thinking. Some of us have long held that training in analysis is the outstanding value of debating. Its benefits are of both immediate significance and of

lifelong value. If careful guidance is given the student in defining his terms, in breaking down issues, and in seeing that there is more than one view on a question, not merely one dogmatic position, we have gone a long way toward developing a thoughtful and discriminating citizen. In so far as debate training stimulates and directs thinking, encourages reading and investigation, and fosters discussion of issues with colleagues and opponents, it is training for democracy; it is training for citizenship.

A justification of high school debating is that it starts the boy at an early age in the process of analysis. Few people are more dogmatic than a high school sophomore. At the very time when horizons should begin to broaden, intellectual ossification sets in. A mighty deterrent to this is discussion and debate which, rightly taught, brings into focus aspects and angles of propositions which might otherwise never be considered. Likewise, the same justification holds for college debating. If we cannot start the process of developing inquiring minds in the secondary schools, let us do so as soon as we can in college.

A rough analogy may further this idea. The writing of a Master's thesis introduces the graduate student to techniques of research. If the candidate never goes beyond meeting the requirements for the M. A. degree, all this research, rightly directed, will be good for him. He is disciplined and sensitized by the processes of search, synthesis, and writing. If he does, in time, work for the doctorate, he will find, as all Ph.D. candidates will testify, inestimable values from his experience with the M.A. thesis. Analogies are dangerous and so are assumptions, but somewhere along in those years from the time the boy begins to debate in high school, on to the time when we see him as a finished and capable college debater and still later as a thinking citizen, there have been disciplinary educational forces at work which have made their impress upon him.

At several points in these paragraphs there have occurred the words, "rightly directed." All the ideals of debate training thus far set forth can be prostituted, and have been in altogether too many instances. But in all institutions and practices there are evils which at times almost outweigh the virtues. The evils of debate are not inherent, and as educators we can remove them. Let us hope that the days of over-coaching are over and that even where decisions are retained, as in tournament debating, for instance, there is being developed a philosophy that, if the analysis is thorough and if all our work is done by students motivated by the desire to be ethical and considerate, we shall be instilling attitudes and methods which are above suspicion and criticism. It is in this respect that the director has his great opportunity.

**PLAN NOW TO ATTEND THE TOURNAMENT, CONGRESS AND
CONVENTION IN JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI,
MARCH 23-27, 1943**

PROCEDURES IN HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH

WILHELMINA G. HEDDE

W. H. Adamson High School, Dallas, Texas

In presenting a tested procedure in high school speech, one must begin with a caution and a reminder. It must be remembered that the high school student is still a child. He is from fourteen to eighteen years of age, and during this age the high school student is rapidly changing in height and weight. He lacks muscular control. He has elongated arms and limbs. He is irritatingly awkward, bashful, and self-conscious. The high school student has lost most of the confidence he had when he was ten or twelve years of age. Only last week a student in a public speaking class told me that for most of her life, up to four years ago, she had been singing, acting, and dancing in a traveling troupe. At that time she was never scared but now she feels awkward and shows a great deal of stage fright. Thus, it is seen that the speech teacher must approach the training of the high school student very cautiously in order to cope successfully with the problems of that age.

It is usually agreed that the chief general objective of speech training in the high school is to develop within the student those processes that will enable him to live effectively in whatever life situations he may find himself. The student must be trained so that he will be ready for adult living and able to meet speaking situations in that adult life. The high school speech course, therefore, must be a medium which facilitates smooth human relations and social integration.

In order to attain this objective, the high school student should be guided in the continued development of those techniques, skills, habits, and personality traits that are necessary for effective living in a democratic society. The teacher must begin with the student, his needs and his inabilities, and by indirection incorporate the fundamentals of speech in a series of progressive speaking experiences. Hence, in order to develop the desired techniques, skills, and habits, the student must undergo special training in the different divisions into which the speech field naturally falls.

Those special divisions of the speech field in the course for the high school student are naturally determined somewhat by the college entrance credit system. Entrance credit in speech varies from one-half unit to three units, and sometimes four where speech is combined with English. Most high schools offer two years of speech, or four semesters, composed of fundamentals, as a one semester prerequisite course, and public speaking, debate, and dramatics as separate one semester courses. Each of these four courses may be divided into a given number of units, as follows: (1) Fundamentals which deals with action, voice, pronunciation, extemporaneous speaking, radio technique, and interpretation; (2) Public Speaking which deals with delivery, parliamentary law, speech organization, types of speeches, oratory, interpretation, radio plays, and verse speaking; (3) Debate which deals with evidence, reasoning, briefing, refutation, and debating; and (4)

Dramat
chanics

Sin
mit the
vices us
units m
profess
may se
the hig
Hence,
control
and la
coordir

Th
The fi
vices f
and de
their se
let the
degrees
weight
they ca
of the
the ch
walk a
their h
on the
hands

A
rect st
to the
forward
a corro

A
a chair
the ch
stration
back o
gracef
feet.

as the
are cr
a read
the stu
from
of the

A
studen
gracef
find a

Dramatics which deals with appreciation of drama, interpretation, mechanics of dramatic production, and play production.

Since the foregoing list contains many topics, space will not permit the development of all of them. Therefore, only some of the devices used as a means of developing habits and skills in certain of the units mentioned will be discussed here. Let us remind the sage college professor and the seasoned speaker that though these simple processes may seem nonsensical and unimportant it must not be forgotten that the high school student is immature, awkward and self-conscious. Hence, the first thing that a teacher should do is to give drills for control of the body. The student must overcome his awkwardness and lack of poise and develop a controlled body capable of well-coordinated, graceful movement.

There are many drills that will aid in developing body control. The first element of body control is posture, and there are many devices for developing a good posture. Have the class stand as a group and demonstrate good standing positions. Have the students stand by their seats if they are in a classroom, or if they are in the auditorium, let them line up on the stage. See that the feet are at an angle of 45 degrees and that the weight is chiefly on the forward foot. Test the weight by having the students stand on their toes for six counts. If they can stay balanced and return to the original position, the position of the feet is correct. The center of the bodily energy should be in the chest and correct posture may be tested by having the students walk around the class-room with chests up and books placed flat upon their heads. Next the students should walk about without the books on their heads. This should be done naturally and easily with the hands hanging loosely at the sides.

A good exercise for transitions is to have the student take a correct standing position and then, in three counts, shift all of the weight to the forward foot, lift up the rear foot, and bring it forward to the forward position, shifting some of the weight to the forward foot for a correct speaking position.

A device for demonstrating the correct sitting position is to place a chair on the stage and have different individuals take turns sitting in the chair. Criticisms and suggestions will finally get a correct demonstration of a sitting position with the base of the spine up against the back of the chair, the chest and chin up and the arms in any suitable, graceful position. Attention should be given to the position of the feet. The feet should be at a "ready to rise position which is the same as the standing position. Sometimes the feet may be crossed. If they are crossed, it will take three counts to uncross the feet, put them in a ready-to-rise position, and to pull them back near the chair so that the student may stand up in a graceful way. Demonstrations of rising from the various sitting positions may be given. It is best to have all of the students give these illustrations.

Another device for polishing platform technique is to have the student walk to a chair, place himself in front of the chair, sit in a graceful position, pick up a book from the arm of the chair, open it, find an interesting passage to read, finish reading, close the book, put

it on the chair-arm, pull the feet back near the edge of the chair at a ready-to-rise position, stand up, and then leave the stage. It must be remembered that, since the weight is on the front foot in the standing position, the student must begin walking with the rear foot. The walking should be dignified, purposeful and neither too fast nor too slow.

Class work in bodily activity can well be summarized by showing a film on posture. Such a film may be secured through an *Education-Film Company* from your state department.

Pantomime is very beneficial in coordinating the muscles of an awkward body, and since the keynote of pantomime is naturalness and sincerity, the more detailed a pantomime is the better the pantomime and the better the outward manifestation or action. The easiest pantomime with which to begin is to walk across the room as a definite character. The muscles of the trunk, arms, legs, and face should be used. Such individual pantomimes as a girl with new shoes, a bully, a snob, a beggar, a news-boy, or a fruit vender may be used.

Devices for developing facial expression are also good. The student should stand before the class and assume the characteristic postures and facial expressions illustrating such broad emotions as amusement, exhaustion, excitement, dejection, anxiety, disapproval, scorn and fear.

Coordination of all of the muscles of the body in harmonious action can be developed through the following pantomimes: a swimming stroke, fencing, pitching horseshoes, tennis, a golf stroke, and skating. The pantomimes should be done first at a normal rate and then at a slow rate.

It was reported at one of the recent meetings of the National Speech Association that fluency in speech is characteristic of the most successful speaking. It was also reported that making many short speeches develops better speaking abilities than making few long ones. It is this fluency in speaking that must be acquired in order to develop more effective personalities and better social adjustment. Some devices that will develop fluency in speaking are: impromptu speaking, short memorized excerpts from declamations, orations, or dramatic narrative poems. Selections should be memorized as a whole and by thought. This is especially true of the rendition of poetry. Poetry that has been memorized by thought will not be broken nor choppy, and will not be given in a sing-song fashion, for the meaning of the lines will be dominant. Verse speaking choirs can accomplish much in the way of developing expressiveness in the individual student for the student forgets himself when he works in a group.

In addition to the development of controlled bodies, fluent delivery, and correct interpretation of selections, the high school student should learn speech organization. Since, all speeches may be divided into introduction, body, and conclusion, speech organization may be taught on the basis of these divisions. High School students should make and study the types of speeches they are most likely to use. These will include such speeches as: introduction, nomination, wel-

come, banquet, a speech-in-behalf-of-a-cause, presentation, acceptance, interview, and inauguration.

All high school students should understand the principles of parliamentary procedure and be able to take part in conducting meetings. The best plan in such work is to begin with a temporary meeting, and work up a permanent organization until all the types of motions have been presented in a satisfactory manner. Parliamentary procedure in conducting classes thereafter is advisable.

Since radio speaking is so important at the present, much time should be spent on voice training and correct pronunciation. Debating is also valuable for the high school speech student. It develops the mental powers of the students and helps make good speakers.

In conclusion, one can only reiterate that speech makes the greatest contribution to the social growth and the social adjustment of the high school student. Speech develops personality and genuine worth. Let it be remembered that demonstration work is valuable, that short speeches recited every day are better than long speeches delivered infrequently, that assignments should be practical and within the experiences of the high school students.

THE TOURNAMENT AND CONGRESS

(Continued from page 76)

in the constructive speeches and developed in the preceding period of questioning. All of Rule 3 (above) shall apply to this second period of questioning, with appropriate changes of the word "affirmative" to "negative" and *vice versa*.

5. The second negative speaker shall then be allowed five minutes for rebuttal and summary. He shall introduce no essentially new points, but he may use new material for the specific and *bona fide* purpose of refuting the affirmative case as presented in the debate.

6. The second affirmative speaker shall then be allowed five minutes for rebuttal and summary. He shall introduce no essentially new points, but he may use new material for the specific and *bona fide* purpose of refuting the negative case as presented in the debate.

7. The judge shall then vote "Affirmative" or "Negative," basing his decision on the merits of the debate as effective argument, with due consideration of skillful presentation, but with no consideration whatever of the merits of the proposition apart from the actual debate. Time will be allowed following the debate for open discussion and criticisms of the debate.

**PLAN NOW TO ATTEND THE TOURNAMENT, CONGRESS AND
CONVENTION IN JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI,
MARCH 23-27, 1943**

THE TREATMENT OF CLEFT PALATE SPEECH

MRS. W. W. DAVISON
Davison School, Atlanta, Georgia

In normal speech all speech sounds except *m*, *n*, and *ng* are resonated through the oral cavity. There are cases, however, where there are congenital deformities of the palate which cause all sounds to be resonated through the nasal passage. There is an opening in the roof of the mouth. The hard part of the roof of the mouth back of the dental arch is called the hard palate, and the soft part of the roof of the mouth back of the hard palate is called the soft palate, or velum. A cleft in the palate may consist of varying degrees of malformation. A cleft may appear, of almost any form and range of severity, from a slight split in the uvula to a total cleft, which begins at the posterior end of the soft palate and extends through the hard palate, upper dentition and upper lip. The cleft may be on one or both sides of the midline. This destroys the partition between the nasal and oral cavities. The cleft may extend through the soft palate and part way into the hard palate, or a very small v-shaped cleft may appear only in the soft palate. In all such cases, one can readily see that all speech sounds will be deflected through the cleft, into the nasal passage, thus causing a muffled, stuffy tone which is popularly known as cleft palate speech.

It is useless to attempt any speech work with cleft palate cases until an oral surgeon has made the necessary operative repairs or, if an operation is not practical, a velar obturator or plate may be used to close the cleft. This, however, must be determined by a physician. The obturators are of little aid to speech and in later years, if the teeth are lost, the individual cannot wear the plate, since there is then no suction to hold it in position. The pupil's mouth must be normal, or as nearly normal as is possible; otherwise, speech is very apt to be proportionally imperfect. As soon as the necessary operation has been performed and the tissues have had time to heal, speech re-education should begin. While the pupil is making different adjustments to the changed structures in his mouth, it is easier to build up the right set of speech habits.

If the operation is performed during the early months of life, there is less apt to be damaged scar tissue. The bones are soft and can more easily be drawn together. Present day oral surgery has reached such a high degree of perfection that the cleft palate child has a much better chance than formerly.

In cases of a total cleft, the cleft in the lip should be closed as early as possible during the first few days of life—perhaps the first forty-eight hours. When the child is sixteen months of age, a second operation should be performed, and the cleft in the palate closed. This is not advisable earlier, as there is not enough tissue and there is danger of interference with the tooth buds. In cases of a double cleft, the lip is closed first, then the clefts in the palate are repaired in two stages—

the anterior at sixteen months and the posterior four to six months later. Where the soft palate is very short, it can sometimes be lengthened by making a low cut across the posterior pillars and suturing them together at the mid-line.

The degree of normalcy of speech to which a cleft palate case may attain is dependent on several factors: First, the age of the pupil at the time of the operation; second, the degree of perfection of the operation; third, the length of the palate; fourth, the mentality of the pupil; fifth, the amount of cooperation from the parents and the pupil himself; and, sixth, the quality, regularity and intensity of the training. The problem confronting the teacher is: First, the establishment of accurate articulation; second, the elimination of nasality; and, third, improving the social adaptability of the child.

If the operation is performed before the child has acquired speech, and if it is successful, there should be no defective speech. When the operation is performed after a child has acquired speech, there is little change, if any, in the speech after the operation. The job is only half completed. The case must be taught to talk in an entirely new way. Speech re-education should follow immediately, and the period of training, provided it is intensive, should not take long. However, the older the pupil at the time his speech re-education is begun, the longer the time that will be required to replace the old speech habits with new ones. Adults may approach normal speech, but there is apt to be a trace of cleft-palate tones even after years of practice.

Operative procedures and the nature of the deformity itself very often impair the flexibility of the soft palate because of damage to tissues and the resulting formation of scars. From the standpoint of nasality, the normalcy of voice depends on the length of the palate, its flexibility, and the action of the muscles of the soft palate and pharyngeal wall. The pharyngeal wall has to be more flexible than usual in order to help close the opening into the nasal pharynx. This has to be taught through the kinesthetic sense as well as the eyes and the ears.

In my experience, the majority of cleft palate cases have had quite normal mentality. In such cases, of course, the problem is reduced to its simplest form. In a large number of cases, we find cleft palate combined with a low order of mentality. The difficulty of the teacher's task is necessarily directly proportional to the degree of mentality present. The normal child will soon grasp the teacher's idea and, being possessed of normal ambition and anxious to overcome his handicap, will lend full cooperation in his class training and practice work. The opposite in varying degree may be expected in a mentally deficient child.

One of our major problems, as in all teaching, is the matter of proper home cooperation. On the one hand, and perhaps in a majority of cases, we find a misplaced sympathy on the part of the members of the family, with the result that the child is handicapped rather than helped. On the other hand, we frequently find that "nagging" practices and a lack of patience and reasonable sympathy has reared a wall of inferiority in the mind of the child that is most difficult to surmount. Frequently the child does not know whether he is enun-

ciating properly or not, and if the responsible members of the family will ascertain from the teacher just what is expected, they can assist greatly in the treatment. Patience and persistence are necessary on the part of the teacher, the parent and the pupil. A small child should have daily lessons with constant supervision. Older children carry on with one or two lessons a week, using the time in between for daily practice.

The greatest task of the clinician is to teach the patient to direct the breath stream through the oral passage. The case must learn to raise the soft palate and close the opening into the nose. Therefore, exercises to strengthen the muscles and tissues of the palate must be given. The muscles of the pharyngeal wall must be trained to aid the soft palate in making this occlusion. The average pupil cannot make these adjustments without watching himself in a mirror. In order to concentrate and strengthen the expulsion of the breath stream through the oral passage, I give the older pupils exercise in whistling or blowing musical instruments. Smaller children should blow horns, soap-bubbles, pin wheels, etc. In some cases it may be found desirable to massage the soft palate in order to make it more flexible. Some authorities do not advocate this treatment, but in several cases that have come under my supervision it unquestionably has aided in getting better speech. Before beginning work on articulation, I give tongue exercises. Lip exercises should also be given to develop mobility and agility of the lips.

The pupil can make the sound, *m*, to begin with. Using the lip position of *m*, I teach the patient the plosives, *p* and *b*. It is frequently necessary for the pupil to hold his nose in order to force the tone through the oral passage. Since the patient already has the *n* sound also, I teach him *t* and *d* by the same tongue position. In teaching the *k* and *g* sounds, it is often necessary to told the tip of the tongue down and push up and back on the tongue to form the proper lingua-velar occlusion. *S* is one of the most difficult sounds for the cleft palate child to pronounce. He usually substitutes a puff of air through the nose. In order to teach him to produce a proper *s*, the teeth must be brought into normal occlusion, the tongue blade fitted around in the upper gum ridge to prevent the escape of air but with a channel or groove in the middle of the tongue and a tiny opening at the lip, through which the air is concentrated or hissed. I sometimes use a small glass tube or tooth pick between the tip of the tongue and the gum ridge to aid in making the pupils conscious of blowing over the tip of the tongue.

Z is formed in the same way, accompanied by vocalization. The sounds *sh* and *zh* may be developed by having the pupil drop the tip of the tongue from the *s* position so as to distribute the breath stream. In some cases I have found it helpful to alternate such words as *see* and *she*, *so* and *show*, *sun* and *shun*, etc. I find it advantageous to practice all of the sounds in pairs, the tonic and atonic alternately, *k*, *g*, *p*, *b*, *t*, *d*, etc. The continuant *r* may be taught by emphasizing the exercise of sweeping the roof of the mouth with the tongue. The tone must flow over the turned-up tip of the tongue. The continuant *l* may

be taught by using the position of the tongue for *n* as a basis and teaching the pupil to emit the tone around the sides of the tongue.

The work must proceed slowly and systematically with practice on each consonant in initial, medial and final positions in combination with each of the vowels. Consonant blends, such as *tr*, *gr*, *bl*, *st*, *fl*, etc., should be practiced next. Following the work on sounds and words, the pupil must be taught to speak in breath groups and weave a clear-cut, pleasing and interesting speech pattern. Otherwise, in his effort to articulate each word correctly, he is apt to make each word prominent and produce a labored, monotonous speech.

Close supervision must be given to the muscles of the face. In his effort to make the various speech sounds, the pupil is liable to bring into play unnecessary activity of the muscles around the nose and brow, thus producing facial contortions that are entirely unnecessary.

Speech has to do primarily with the adjustment of the human being to his social environment. The individual suffering from a defect in his speech therefore needs to be helped in overcoming his social and economic handicap. The cleft palate patient has a right to speech that is as nearly normal as it is possible for him to attain. He must also be taught through sound mental hygiene to adjust himself wisely to his problem in order to minimize as much as possible the handicap under which he lives.

THE WAR SERVICE CONVENTION AT CHICAGO

(Continued from page 71)

will be set in action by the Executive Council at any time when it appears that the annual convention cannot be held because of war conditions. This Committee consists of the following-named:

Chairman, Robert West, University of Wisconsin, president of the Association; H. A. Wichelns, Cornell University; Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne University, secretary of the Association; C. M. Wise, Louisiana State University, immediate past president of the Association; Alan Monroe, Purdue University.

Despite the war aspects of much of the program, there was remarkable evidence of proper judicial calm and poise. At least three addresses in the general sessions emphasized such abiding truths as the necessity that teachers of speech be men and women of good will, of good character, of sound integrity, and of such design for living as may safely be imitated by their students.

The fact that the convention was small permitted to an unusual degree the carrying on of conversations and conferences and the development of personal acquaintanceship among those present. It was remarked many times that while the reduced enrollment was regrettable, still there was compensation in the increased opportunities for professional and personal fellowship. It was likewise many times remarked that the whole atmosphere of the convention was exceedingly vital and effective. It was recognized that the likelihood of holding a convention next year is exceedingly slight, depending, of course, upon the progress of the war. Accordingly, it was considered fortunate

(Continued on page 93)

AN INTERESTING CASE IN SPEECH CORRECTION

MAX R. AND NORMA D. REED

Southern Institute for Speech Correction, New Orleans

The case described here was odd and difficult to classify. Presenting symptoms characteristic of half a dozen disorders, this eight year old boy had been a difficult problem for his parents. The numerous physicians to whom the parents had taken him, gave widely differing diagnoses.

The child was brought for an interview by his mother on May 8, 1941. The mother, a nervous woman in her early thirties, was unable to handle the boy during the interview. Her complaint was as follows: She did not know what was the matter with Richard's speech. He supposedly had a hearing loss for which there was an organic basis, but he also stuttered. At times he seemed to understand her, but often apparently did not hear her at all. (She agreed that this might be inattentiveness.)

The first impression was that, granting there was an actual organic loss of hearing, the psychological picture was the more serious. At this interview Richard's score on the Goodenough "man" test indicated normal intelligence. Performance on form boards was satisfactory, and the general picture was one of normal intelligence.

Richard's birth was a forceps delivery, but there was no perceptible injury. Development was normal in all respects. At four his tonsils and adenoids were removed, scar tissue formed, and at five he began to lose his hearing. When a little over six he completely lost his hearing and speech. After this he attended school irregularly for a short period, was demoted to first grade from 2B and then dropped. Shortly afterward his parents moved and he was sent to a parochial school where his progress was unsatisfactory and the parents found it necessary to withdraw him. He was out of school until he came to us about a year and a half later.

He told us when we were ascertaining how far he had advanced in arithmetic that he had "learned everything" he knew before he was "free" (three). The following information was offered by Richard's public school teacher:

The child tried hard in school and was a good pupil but nervous. His speech at first was very loud¹ and showed a stammer and lisp, so he was put into a speech class. He would talk only to teachers he knew, hid his head in my lap and wanted me to show him affection. Suddenly he lost his speech and hearing, so I talked to him in sign language. His mother took him to a concern of chiropractors who brought back his speech and hearing to some extent.² The mother is very concerned over the child, is careful about his diet and general health. She has worried herself sick over his condition, and has taken him to every doctor she

¹ This was in contrast to the soft, low-pitched voice exhibited at our interview.

² When we questioned the mother on this point, her answers indicated that the chiropractor may have shown good insight into the case. He had apparently diagnosed it as a psychological disorder, used a logical approach in therapy, helping the boy somewhat to return to normalcy.

hears about, spending a fortune on him. One doctor diagnosed a brain tumor, but others denied this. Richard had a fall when he was two or three years old, and since then he has had convulsions at home, but not at school.^a

The medical history was very confusing, but numerous facts were learned from various diagnoses which were useful in organizing therapeutic procedures. The first doctor who examined the boy was a reputable physician whose diagnosis stated that the condition indicated the presence of a brain tumor. He was positive of the correctness of his diagnosis. Certainly a brain tumor could have resulted in the vacillating hearing, varying speech symptoms and convulsions. Two prominent neurologists later stated positively that there was no possibility of any organic brain disturbance. The otolaryngologist who referred the case to us had found approximately a 15% hearing loss (not sufficient to account for the complete inability to hear at times) and performed a stricturotomy of the Eustachian tubes which did not give the permanent improvement expected. The boy soon lapsed into his earlier condition.

At no time were we able to test accurately the boy's hearing with an audiometer. His audiogram often varied an average of 25 db's on two tests taken 15 minutes apart. Obviously behavior played a large part in these results.

Examination by a pediatrician to whom we had previously described the case yielded valuable information. The boy's convulsions were not of an epileptoid nature; the poor diet combined with the bad home situation produced the condition. It was interesting to learn from several doctors that he sheepishly refused to look at them during examinations when he was feigning illness.

There were several hereditary factors of importance. The mother was neurotic and unstable. The father had had religious visions accompanied by convulsions until the age of fourteen. He was operating his own business successfully at the time we knew him, and he firmly believed that Richard would outgrow his convulsions when he reached fourteen. A maternal aunt had become deaf after middle age.

Richard was an only child among anxious, quarreling relatives. His parents were constantly burdened by unwanted relatives, and Richard often had to sleep with both parents. His mother was over-protective and over-anxious about his health, although he was a robust, fine-looking child and was absent only four days during the ten and a half months he was with us. The mother allowed him to play with his four year old girl cousin, "Patsy," and never with any boys of his own age.

The mother was unaware that coffee and spaghetti were not a good daily diet for a child of eight. She insisted that he didn't eat spaghetti every day, because on some days he had macaroni or vermicelli. The diet plus malocclusion produced by a protruding lower jaw had aided in establishing the physical condition conducive to the convulsions described by the pediatrician.

^a This fact the mother did not mention to us for some time.

In addition to the speech symptoms described above there were also the following: The pitch and volume varied abnormally from day to day. Some vowels were spoken with an Italian accent. Consonant inaccuracies included *th* for *f*, *km* for *kl*, and *b* for *v*. When he tried to imitate a vocal and lipreading pattern, he screwed up his face, and blurted out too loudly, producing some remarkable combinations, such as:

fthisht for *fish*
veg-ej-potato soup for *vegetable soup*
aviasoldier for *aviator*
saw-sandwich for *sandwich*
breakflakes for *breakfast*

He also demonstrated rather bizarre stuttering symptoms. While seeming to grope for words to express himself, he made a noise something like *m*: *da-da-da*-, followed by a weird jargon. When using two syllable words such as *mama*, *daddy*, *Richard*, and *Patsy*, he almost invariably repeated the medial consonants with the following results: *mamama*, *dadady*, *Richarchard*, *Patsasy* and *earlaly*.

The Italian accent was difficult to explain since the only person he knew with an Italian accent was his grandfather whom he seldom visited. The peculiar repetition of the medial consonant was even more difficult to explain. This type of speech is typical of the "Cajun" children of the margin lands, but Richard was never allowed to play with many children, and none of those, so far as it is known, exhibited this peculiarity.

The stutter was not a true stutter, but rather a deliberate repetition of syllables for some secret pleasure and for the effect on others. Often the speech resembled aphasic or post-encephalitic speech. The phonograph recording made early in our program was largely unintelligible.

The case presented two rather clear-cut therapeutical problems: the actual corrective speech procedure and the psychological orientation. The corrective procedures had to take into consideration several factors. First, the oral inaccuracies were approached through the use of the phonetic method combined with a modification of the motokinesthetic method. Then phonetic drills were used as a lip-reading and auditory approach. These techniques were also designed to aid in offsetting any condition which might have been the result of the problematical brain tumor.

In applying these procedures great care had to be taken that the child was not feigning ignorance or deafness. The attitude of the instructors was always cheerful, but the techniques were applied firmly and dynamically. He became very fond of phonetic drills, but it was months before he could correctly sound and read syllables containing three elements. Writing reversals of *f* and *j*, *b* and *d*, *p* and *q* and a reversed *z* were eliminated. Along with the speech training, school work was begun to offset his scholastic retardation. Here again, great care was taken to eliminate his habit of feigning ignorance.

The psychological re-adjustment involved some alteration of the whole environment. The first task was to insist that the child sleep

alone. Then the mother was told to change the child's diet, first by us and later by the pediatrician. At school he refused to chew some foods, and insisted that he should not combine certain foods. This was dietetic nonsense and the result of his ignorant mother's anxiety.

His behavior outside of that related to speech and school work seemed normal during the first day of observation. The next morning the mother voluntarily reported that he was already less "nervous" and, for the first time, played with his cousin without fighting.

The mother was told to discontinue the constant discussion of the child's problems in his presence, to stop exhibiting anxiety over his every move, and to let him play with other boys. Also, most important psychologically, the mother was asked not to display her daily surprise and concern over his oddities of behavior and speech, many of which were merely attention-getting devices, and to stop screaming "don't" at him on every trivial occasion. At school his oddities of behavior were ignored. Various methods were used to determine when he was feigning deafness, and this behavior strongly discouraged. He was treated exactly as the other children.

Richard progressed, at first erratically, then more steadily. The convulsions became fewer and finally ceased. His hearing became more consistent and, although it seemed that he did have an actual loss, the spells of complete deafness ceased. He played with other children normally. His speech became normal, except for a slight trace of Italian accent, and an occasional volume change. His behavior still responded adversely to family upsets, but less severely. As the program of mental hygiene proceeded, the mother was encouraged to discontinue inventing ills for the child. Consequently, her own neurotic ailments increased proportionately.

In September 1942 Richard re-entered public school in the third grade. In November his mother brought him to us for a check-up. He was making a good adjustment. His first six-weeks report card was satisfactory, except for reading. His behavior was normal. Indications are that his development will be satisfactory, but in view of the personality and environmental factors involved his future is, of course, unpredictable.

A MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT

(Continued from page 68)

is represented at the Jackson convention by at least one outstanding person in the field. I hope you will remind me of this challenging, almost bragging, statement after you attend the sessions in which you are especially interested next March in Jackson. Please do not forget the dates: March 23-24 for the high school tournament and Congress; March 25-27 for the professional convention sessions. May I suggest you make reservations early with the Heidelberg Hotel in Jackson, Mississippi. Remember our convention theme: Speech For War and For Peace.

CASTING PLAYS IN GIRLS' SCHOOLS

FRANCES K. GOOCH

Agnes Scott College

The problem of casting a play in a girls' school is, in most cases, an arduous one. There are a very few plays with all feminine casts which have either dramatic or literary value, and most rarely have they both. It is a sad fact that no play for women has been written which is as strong as "Journey's End," "The Last Mile," "The Lost Silk Hat," "Gods of The Mountain," "In the Zone" or "The Rising of the Moon" and others for a cast of men only. There are no reasons why such plays may not be written for women, but no one seems to see drama in a situation where there are no men. This makes it difficult to choose a play for women only, for those few good ones with feminine casts are very soon exhausted.

Usually catalogues are mulled over to find possible dramas with only one, two or not more than four men in the cast. These masculine characters are studied assiduously in reference to the girls available for playing men's roles. In the end, the play with the least difficult masculine roles is chosen, and the girls who seem able to interpret them with the least detriment to the roles and to themselves are chosen to play them.

But with this, the trouble is not ended. Very seldom does a girl want to play a man's role, nor do her parents want her to play it. This fact takes away the keen zest with which she should study her part. It does not help the director during rehearsals. In most cases the director must put the part into the student spoonful by spoonful, as it were, and the less eager the student is to do it well, the greater must be the efforts with the spoon.

Serious considerations enter into the task of casting a play for girls:

1. Each girl always hopes for the role of the heroine whether she is fitted for it in size, appearance or personality. This is a legitimate desire, perhaps, as they cannot see themselves as they are seen by others.
2. Many students who look the part for which they try, have neither the voice nor bodily technique necessary for the part.
3. Some very gifted girls are too tall, or too stout, or too thin, or are otherwise unable to fit into the stage picture with smaller girls, and yet play the role for which they are best fitted. It happens in many cases that very tall girls can never play a man's role. They are in every way too feminine in their whole mental make-up.
4. Often the only girls who have sufficient dramatic insight to be able to "think as a man" and create the illusion necessary for the masculine character are comparatively small in size. Then all the girls playing feminine roles must be as small or smaller. This leaves no place in the cast for the tall girls, but the tall ones are often the best actresses.
5. There are definite dangers in casting girls for masculine roles. The most apparent ones are: (1) Girls are likely to injure their voices permanently by manipulating them and forcing themselves to speak on a low pitch, (2) They are likely to copy the actions of men in

such a way as to relate them to their own thinking and personality rather than only to the character they are playing. This is sure to leave a hang-over which spoils their feminine charm, and (3) They lose the power to play a woman's role attractively.

These facts are especially true of girls who have little technique in the use of voice and body. If a student has had good technical training, has done dramatic reading through a period of three or four years, and has mastered voice and body technique sufficiently to personate characters of all kinds through voice and action, the problem is a different one. If she can relate her speech and action to characters she is portraying in reading drama, for instance, passing from character to character with rapid transition in dialogue, being able to step out of character, at any instant, into her own personality, she has a grip on things that will not be injured by playing men's roles, unless she plays them exclusively through a period of three or more years.

But seldom does a student have the opportunity today, even in our universities—and certainly not in our liberal arts colleges—to get the training which can give her the technique I have described. That takes time and much work. It takes more time than can possibly be given to a subject which meets twice or three times per week through a year, or even two years. In many schools where girls are playing masculine roles, they have no chance to learn techniques. All that they do is done by main strength and awkwardness—chiefly awkwardness. Having no opportunity to act except in masculine roles, girls in these schools reluctantly accept the parts. In such cases playing masculine roles is undoubtedly harmful.

The solution to all these problems has been found in many of our schools and colleges by an alliance with the dramatic group of a men's school close by. The plays are rehearsed and played for both college communities. In other cases the girls invite their men friends from the city or town where the college is located. The men whom they invite to act with them often have some dramatic experience and are somewhat older than college men. Thus the productions are usually of a higher order.

Unless speech becomes a required subject in our girls' schools, and the work is pursued until the students have their dramatic powers so unfolded and a technique so developed that they can drop easily into the thinking—and consequently the voice and actions—of many character types at will, I believe it is safer not to ask girls to play masculine roles.

THE WAR SERVICE AT CHICAGO

(Continued from page 87)

that this year's War Service Convention could be held, so that the guidance of this Association and of speech teaching itself could be carried forward in pursuance of careful planning. The members of both the War Committee and the Steering Committee (if and when the Steering Committee is put into action) will welcome questions or suggestions from members of the Association.

BOOK REVIEWS

RICHARD C. BRAND

INTERPRETATIVE READING, TECHNIQUES AND SELECTIONS. By Sarah Lowrey and Gertrude Johnson, New York: D. Appleton-Century, Inc., 1942; pp 607, xx.

In a scholarly text, designed to be a source of inspiration to both teachers and student, the authors have emphasized that their book does not attempt to present new truths, but to present the old ones in such a way that the teacher may find in them a freshness and vitality that may enliven his teaching. The authors recognize that their book may seem a strange approach to the subject of interpretative reading, departing as it does from the traditional in approach and organization.

The "whole method" of Gestalt psychology is used as the basis for the development of oral interpretation. We are constantly reminded that development in speech generally, and in oral interpretation specifically, depends, like physical development, upon the growth of the whole being. Even though the teacher must concentrate on one thing at a time, neither he nor his students should lose sight of the fact that each assignment is but part of a whole and must be dealt with in relation to the whole.

With this psychological background, the teacher should strike at the center of a student's need, thereby achieving the ideal of the whole more easily. Perhaps the central need for a given student may be that he must realize the significance of what the selection is saying and care whether his audience gets it or not. Such a realization on the student's part can help enunciation, posture, animation, etc., thereby solving, by the grasping of the whole, many of the perplexing small problems bothering both student and teacher.

In a foreword to the students, they are told that this text, *Interpretative Reading*, offers them a means to learn more about life through the study of literature; that it suggests techniques whereby they may learn to interpret life through literature and to share the interpretation with others; that it helps them to learn to think and to communicate thoughts to others. Students are urged to work in a course in oral interpretation because of what it will do for them in daily life.

The text proper is divided into two sections: "Techniques" and "Selections for Interpretation." Under "Techniques" are chapters on: Interpretative Reading, a Creative Process; A Technique of Thinking for Interpretative Reading; Dramatic Timing in Interpretative Reading; Structure in Interpretative Reading; Illusion; Voice; Interpretation of Meaning; Backgrounds, Introductions, and Programs; Choral Reading; and Interpretative Reading for the Radio.

"Selections for Interpretation," segregated in the latter portion of the book, include what the authors term "old favorites," selections from Dickens, Shakespeare, Longfellow, Whittier, etc., being used freely because, as they point out, the works of directly contemporaneous authors are at hand and can be found in many places.

"In the pages of this text some of the fundamentals of art, psychology and life are discussed and applied specifically to the process of reading aloud," say the authors. And if we could find any faults with *Interpretative Reading* as a text they would probably come from this fact. For ourselves, we find the book a scholarly and original treatment of the subject; but, for our students we feel that there is too much emphasis on the fundamentals of "art, psychology and

life," and not enough clear cut analysis of what to do to get results. For example, take the explanation of "tone color": "The secret is to be found in sincere and earnest thinking coupled with good psycho-physical coordination." Now, we admit, that to a trained speech teacher, or, perhaps, to a speech student, this method of achieving tone color is perhaps clear, but to the average student the matter might become a clutter of fine words.

Perhaps we can best explain by saying that we feel the average student in beginning interpretation, confronted with this text, would feel much as we did in our first educational psychology class when we were given Mr. John Dewey's admirable masterpiece on the subject as our basic text. We feel that this book, as Mr. Dewey's, is a masterpiece, and becomes, in the hands of a fine teacher, a treasure; but in the hands of a mediocre man a, shall we borrow the common expression, "Chinese puzzle." But the authors themselves have recognized the possibility of such a fact and have stated in their Preface: "A textbook cannot take the place of a teacher. Its purpose is to supplement, to reinforce and perhaps to guide." This is a text for the good teacher, but one that should be shunned by the "nose-in-the-text" type of pedagogue.

R. C. B.

AMERICAN SPEECH. By *Wilhelmina G. Hedde* and *William Norwood Brigrance*. Chicago: J. P. Lippincott Company, 1942; pp. 596, xii; \$1.80.

American Speech is a high school speech textbook, a rewritten, reorganized, reillustrated, and reset edition based on the authors' previous text, *Speech*. (Reviewed in the *Southern Speech Bulletin* for March, 1936.). Among the changes and new features are: a completely new introductory section, based on timely principles of the day, called "Everyday Speech in a Democracy;" six entirely new chapters; new specimen conversations, discussions, orations, and the like; sixty-two new pictures to illustrate text material; and many new exercises and activities.

The three tenets behind this text, determining its aim and contents, are given as follows in the Preface:

"Speech training in high school should be not merely for the talented few, but for all who in life are going to meet speech situations in any form.

"As society becomes more complex its speech patterns likewise become more complex, and speech training, therefore, becomes increasingly important.

"This training should aim at making efficient future citizens of the masses now in school, so that they will be prepared for living in our democratic way of life."

A course of study, varying from one to four semesters, has been carefully worked out by the authors, and there is no teacher of high school speech who could not profit by a study of the authors' plan. It is worked out in some detail, the actual chapters for use in each semester being designated.

The immediate objectives of this speech program are designated as skills to be obtained. Among them are: to develop character and personality; to establish good habits of speech; to develop good mental habits; to establish correct conditions of speech; to develop appreciation of the best in drama, literature, the theater, radio, platform speech, and the best standards of American speech.

How well the authors have attempted to develop these skills may be seen from a glance at the table of contents. The following are some of the chapters. Part I—Everyday Speech in a Democracy: Everyday Conversation; Special Types of Conversation; Group Discussion; Parliamentary Procedure. Part II—

Communicating Thought: Talking with the Body; Using the Voice, etc. Part III—Original Speaking: including Debate, and Radio Speaking. Part IV—Interpretation: Reading with Meaning; Interpreting Types of Material; Reading and Speaking in Chorus; Story-telling; Declaiming. Part V—Dramatics.

We are greatly impressed by the make-up of this text, the illustrative material, the arrangement of lesson material, the examples and exercises, the clear cut instructions, etc. Let us select from the chapter on Everyday Conversation, one typical example. The lesson material says, concretely, "Be considerate and tactful." Four typical cases of people who are not considerate are given: "The 'know-it-all', the interrupter, the braggart, and the faultfinder;" and their typical untactful remarks are illustrated: "Isn't that last year's dress?" "Does your father have a job yet?", etc. Following these examples of the bad, the qualities of a really considerate person are listed.

This seems an excellent departure for high school speech texts, since so many young people to whom the writer tried to teach conversational speech had so little home background that *tact* and similar words were foreign to their whole thinking and certainly need and deserve a place in speech training.

We recommend this text most heartily and hope that the objectives and principles on which it is built will form the basis of many more of our high school speech texts and courses.

R. C. B.

REPRESENTATIVE AMERICAN SPEECHES: 1941-1942. Selected by *A. Craig Baird*. (The Reference Shelf, Vol. 16, No. 1) New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1942; pp. 297; \$1.25.

Permeated by the war spirit of the times, this volume, the fifth in the annual series of American speeches, may indeed be appropriately labelled "War Speeches" as the compiler suggests in his prefatory note.

Touching, as the speeches herein contained do, on all the phases of the American way from war to socio-economic adjustments after the war, this book may be termed a typical cross-section of American ideals and modes of thinking during this critical period; and, as such, is of special value at this time when so much is being said and written. To have, in one volume, for study and even memorization, the best that has been spoken during the past year, collected and edited by an expert, is decidedly a help and an inspiration to the student searching for material and to the hard-pressed instructor who is asked to speak on many occasions in these busy times.

This volume is introduced under the sub-head, "Speaking for Victory." The table of contents is divided into the following divisions: America at War; America's War Aims; Propaganda, Free Speech, and the War; Civilian Morale and the War; The Home Front; The Military Front; Education and the War; Religion and the War; and America and Post-War Leadership. The compiler has deviated from his policy of including only speeches delivered by Americans, to include the address of Mr. Winston Churchill before the Congress of the United States on December 26, 1941. His deviation is justified by the fact that the speech was delivered in America and vitally concerned Americans.

We find this collection, as its predecessors, an exceedingly valuable addition to our "reference shelves," and feel that it will be most helpful to all of us as a storehouse of the best in wartime oratory, and a handbook on American thought and reaction in the period following Pearl Harbor.

R. C. B.

PLAY REVIEWS

ROBERT B. CAPEL

MY SISTER EILEEN, by *Joseph Fields* and *Jerome Chodorov*, based on the stories by Ruth McKenney; Publisher, Random House; Agent, Dramatists Play Service, Inc.; copyright, 1941; comedy in 3 acts; 1 interior; 21 m, 6 w; High School, No; College ***.

Although the locale of this comedy is Greenwich Village, it should appeal to audiences everywhere. Filled with witty lines, laugh-provoking situations and a wide variety of comic characters, *Eileen* should provide a gay evening.

The one set is not too difficult, but requires the use of parallels and stairs and a fairly large stage. Lighting presents no difficult problems and costuming is simple. The great problem in producing this play is capturing the zany mood and setting the tempo to project it.

Casting the twenty-one men's parts might also be a problem in some schools. However, many of these parts are short and, with judicious casting, a number of them can be doubled.

MONROE LIPPMAN, *Tulane University*

HEAVEN CAN WAIT, by *Harry Segall*; Dramatists Play Service, Inc.; copyright, 1942; comedy-fantasy in three acts; \$25 royalty; 2 interiors, 1 exterior; 12 m, 6 w, extras; High School *; College **.

This play was first produced on the screen as *Here Comes Mr. Jordan*. It is an entertaining and novel comedy about a likable young prize fighter who is prematurely taken from the earth into the after life by mistake, and the problems faced in getting him back to life so that he may live out his allotted span.

The exterior and one of the interior sets can be done very simply by use of suggestion. They can be small and easily played inside the larger set in which most of the action takes place. Lighting is not too difficult, although there is an opportunity for effective experimentation with lights, particularly in the opening scene. Costuming is modern. The only sound effect which might present a problem is the off stage roar of a crowd at a prize fight, but this, like most other sound effects, can be obtained on records. A poser for the props master is the need for a punching bag platform, pulleys, weights and other body-developing apparatus.

This play offers an opportunity for sharp character delineation and, from reports, is proving popular where produced.

MONROE LIPPMAN, *Tulane University*

CLARENCE, by *Booth Tarkington*; Samuel French; copyright, 1941; comedy in four acts; \$25 royalty; 2 interiors; 5 m, 5 w; High School ****; College ***.

Although first produced in 1919, *Clarence* is still excellent entertainment. It is once again timely and should provide an evening of rib-tickling pleasure, for it is a fine piece of theatrical Americana.

The two sets present no difficulties, and the lighting is very simple. This reviewer suggests that producing the play in the costumes and stage setting style of 1919 will add definitely to its effectiveness. All parts in the play are good and you are likely to find that both cast and audience will get enjoyment from *Clarence*.

MONROE LIPPMAN, *Tulane University*

THE GHOST OF RHODES MANOR, by *Jean Lee Latham*; Dramatists Play Service, Inc.; copyright 1939; mystery play in three acts; royalty \$10; 1 interior; no m, 10 w; High School ***; College ***.

With the possibility that men students may be taken out of the colleges for the armed forces, a good all girl show may become unusually popular. This play should be a very satisfactory solution to this problem or to the problem of a woman's college. The writing is reasonably good and audience interest is held throughout. The set is extremely simple and the costumes are modern with the exception of perhaps two characters who may be regarded as "old fashioned." Sound effects include a clock striking off stage and the noise of an automobile approaching and stopping. Only general lighting is required but extensive use is made of the "black out." At one place in the play a body is required to float out a door but a very satisfactory solution is suggested in the script. The play is completely clean in dialogue. There are no unusually difficult problems of casting or production.

R. B. C.

LETTERS TO LUCERNE, by *Fritz Rotter* and *Allen Vincent*; Samuel French, Inc.; copyright 1942; drama in three acts; royalty \$35; two interiors, script revised to permit the use of one interior; 4 m; 9 w; High School *; College ***.

A timely, poignant drama concerning a girls' school in Switzerland, and the effect the war has on the students from the various countries. The script, using the two sets, demands a main hall containing Louis XIV furniture, if possible, and a dormitory room in which are six identical beds. If only one set is used, it is the main hall and the furniture is simplified. A light plot is given. Modern costumes consist of street clothes and night attire. A wardrobe inventory is included in the copy and the property list is complete. A small amount of French is included in the dialogue. Outstanding character parts are possible in the roles of the old Swiss gardener; the cook, also Swiss; and the postman (a bit part) who speaks chiefly in French. Other characters are: girls of varying types and nationalities; two women in their thirties, heads of the school; a policeman in uniform; and a German youth, brother of one of the girls. The play is suitable for high schools only with an advanced and experienced cast.

MARGUERITE PEARCE, *Searcy* (Arkansas) High School

THE PHILADELPHIA STORY, by *Philip Barry*; Samuel French, Inc.; copyright 1942; comedy in three acts; royalty \$50; 2 interiors; 9 m, 6 w; High School, No; College ***

This sophisticated comedy was a very satisfactory vehicle for the talents of Katherine Hepburn who starred in its appearance on Broadway. The role might prove difficult for many amateur actresses. The two sets are not unusually difficult and there are no elaborate sound effects necessary. The lighting is quite simple and the costumes are modern. Philip Barry has done an excellent piece of writing in turning an incident into enjoyable comedy. Some schools would object to the sophisticated dialogue.

R. B. C.

vice,
ior;

for
This
n of
held
the
ed."
obile
use
d to
The
lems

Inc.;
t re-
Col-

d the
cript,
e, if
one
ot is
robe
small
s are
d the
girls
f the
f the
ex-

right
school,

ts of
might
usually
ng is
ellent
hools